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1 **Simulation of the hydraulic performance of Highway Filter Drains**
2 **through Laboratory Models and Stormwater Management Tools**

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27

28

Abstract

29 Road drainage is one of the most relevant assets in transport infrastructure due to its inherent influence on
30 traffic management and road safety. Highway Filter Drains (HFD), also known as “French Drains”, are the
31 main drainage system currently in use in the UK throughout 7,000 km of its strategic road network. Despite
32 being a widespread technique across the whole country, little research has been done on their design
33 considerations and their subsequent impact on their hydraulic performance, representing a gap in the field.
34 Laboratory experiments have been proven to be a reliable indicator for the simulation of the hydraulic
35 performance of Stormwater Best Management Practices (BMPs). In addition to this, Stormwater
36 Management Tools (SMT) have been preferentially chosen as a design tool for BMPs by practitioners from
37 all over the world. In this context, this research aims to investigate the hydraulic performance of HFD by
38 comparing the results from laboratory simulation and two widely used SMT such as the US EPA’s
39 StormWater Management Model (SWMM) and MicroDrainage[®]. Statistical analyses were applied to a
40 series of rainfall scenarios simulated, showing a high level of accuracy between the results obtained in
41 laboratory and using SMT as indicated by the high and low values of the Nash-Sutcliffe and R² coefficients
42 and Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) reached, which validated the usefulness of SMT to determine the
43 hydraulic performance of HFDs.

44

45 **Keywords:** Highway Filter Drains (HFD); Low Impact Development (LID); Rainfall-runoff simulation;
46 Sustainable Drainage Systems (SuDS); Transport Infrastructure; Water Sensitive Urban Design (WSUD).

47 **1. Introduction**

48 The UK has one of the densest road networks in Europe, consisting of nearly 1.8 km road/km² land area
49 (Nicodeme et al. 2012) and more than 300 billion vehicle miles in 2014 (UK Department of Transport
50 2015). Hence, to ensure safety, road condition and environmental protection (Coupe et al. 2015), Filter
51 Drains (FDs) (Highway Filter Drains -HFDs- when used in Highways/Motorways), also known as “French
52 Drains”, have been implemented and maintained in 7,000 km of the UK’s Strategic Road Network (SRN).
53 HFDs catch the runoff, safely removing it from the carriageway, and treat the pollutants washed off from
54 the road whilst reducing the runoff peak-flow before discharging into natural watercourses downstream or
55 conventional drainage systems (Woods-Ballard et al. 2015).

56 The importance of FDs in other European countries outside Great Britain can be measured by the research
57 carried out in the Republic of Ireland by Bruen et al. (2006) and Desta et al. (2007), where more than 40%
58 of dual carriageways and motorways use FDs as their main drainage asset. Spain has also implemented the
59 use of FDs as a Sustainable Drainage System (SuDS) instead of a more conventional road technique as in
60 the UK, having achieved promising results as shown in Castro-Fresno et al. (2013), Andrés-Valeri et al.
61 (2014) and Sañudo-Fontaneda et al. (2014b).

62 Design considerations for Road FDs in the UK can be obtained from the “Design Manual for Roads and
63 Bridges” (DMRB-UK 2004). The manual specifies that highway drainage systems should be designed in
64 order to be fully capable of catching runoff produced by high-intensity rainfall events over a few minutes
65 with return periods between 1 and 5 years.

66 Despite the importance of HFD to drainage highways, there is little research carried out up to date.
67 Stylianides et al. (2016) focused on the study of Ground Penetration Radar (GPR) technologies to assess
68 HFD condition onsite. However, there was no relationship established between HFD condition and hydraulic
69 performance (infiltration rates and hydrographs, rainfall intensities, etc.). Coupe et al. (2015; 2016) pointed
70 out the need for developing both laboratory and field studies in order to identify the main variables affecting
71 HFD hydraulic performance. They also linked hydraulic performance with the structural performance of
72 HFDs. This study, alongside Sañudo-Fontaneda’s et al. (2016) first attempt to link stormwater management
73 tools with HFD hydraulic performance, was supported by and earlier research published by Ellis and
74 Rowlands (2007). They showed the importance of HFDs and identified the main problems affecting them
75 such as clogging due to sedimentation. No in depth relationship was established then between hydraulic

76 performance and clogging effects. Furthermore, Norris et al. (2013) found out that mechanisms involved
77 in pollution attenuation on SuDS gravel columns used as drainage systems in roads had been poorly
78 addressed so far, contributing to improve the understanding of their water quality performance. However,
79 other international researches undertaken on Stormwater Best Management Practices (BMP) similar to
80 HFD are available and support the identification of the main needs to advance research in this area. Thomas
81 et al. (2015), Haselbach et al. (2015) and Freimund et al. (2015) investigated the long-term water quality
82 performance of Media Filter Drain (MFD) in roads by means of accelerated tests in the laboratory. Witthoef
83 et al. (2014) developed methods to assess the infiltration rates of BMPs used in roads, including HFDs.
84 Other works by Motsinger et al. (2016) and Bhattarai et al. (2009) focused on the water quality treatment
85 capacities of vegetated strips with similar structures than those of a HFD. Nevertheless, none of these
86 researches evaluated described the hydraulic performance of a HFD, studied its performance under different
87 rainfall intensities and storm durations and linked them to the results obtained by using stormwater
88 management tools. Laboratory experiments based upon the simulation of rainfall events and runoff volumes
89 have been successfully used across the world to model real and varying conditions in the field, including
90 the challenge induced by Climate Change (Golroo and Tighe 2012). This type of research based on
91 experimentation and heavily controlled surrounding conditions allow researchers simulating and modelling
92 the hydraulic performance of Stormwater Best Management Practices (BMPs), known as SuDS in the UK
93 (Fletcher et al. 2015), up to a high level of accuracy. There are many examples of successful researches
94 carried out to simulate the hydraulic performance of BMPs in laboratory. Research on Permeable Pavement
95 Systems (PPS) (Rodriguez-Hernandez et al. 2012; Sañudo-Fontaneda et al. 2013; Sañudo-Fontaneda et al.
96 2014c; Rodriguez-Hernandez et al. 2016; Huang et al. 2016) and grassed areas and green roofs (Deletic
97 2005; Alfredo et al. 2016) are some of the most commonly studied SuDS in the literature.

98 In order to investigate the hydraulic performance of HFD as a previous step before validating the results in
99 the field, laboratory models of HFD were developed and tested under varying scenarios of rainfall
100 intensities and storm durations. Further work was orientated towards the area of replicating the laboratory
101 conditions through stormwater simulations, with the aim of comparing the results achieved through them
102 with those obtained in laboratory. For this late purpose, computational programmes such as the US EPA's
103 StormWater Management Model (SWMM) and MicroDrainage® were selected, due to their condition as
104 some of the most recognised tools for stormwater management design worldwide (Coupe et al. 2016;

105 Sañudo-Fontaneda et al. 2016). SWMM is one of the most used tools due to its particular characteristics
106 containing specific modules for the simulation of BMPs/SuDS, such as the Low Impact Development (LID)
107 Control Editor (Rossman 2010), where FDs are included as a technique. Moreover, SWMM is a free rainfall
108 and runoff-modelling tool available (Jato-Espino et al. 2016a; Sañudo-Fontaneda et al. 2016) and it allows
109 the simulation of small-scale watersheds (Lee et al. 2010; Niazi et al. 2017). As a demonstration of their
110 use to design and simulate BMPs, several researches have been conducted using SWMM as the stormwater
111 management design tool (Zhang and Duo 2015; Jato-Espino et al. 2016b), including some studies focused
112 on validating its application through both field (Rosa et al. 2015; Cipolla et al. 2016; Krebs et al. 2016) and
113 laboratory experiments (Palla and Gneco 2015). On the other hand, MicroDrainage® is the preferred
114 stormwater management drainage design tool in the UK industry, including specific modules that contain
115 SuDS (Hubert et al. 2013). FDs are therefore included as part of the package and their hydraulic
116 performance can be modelled under varying conditions of rainfall events and runoff volumes both in
117 SWMM and MicroDrainage®.

118 The main aim of the research presented in this article is, therefore, the investigation of the hydraulic
119 performance of HFD using both laboratory and modelling tools. This article intends to clarify the
120 understanding of HFD performance and support the use of stormwater management tools as part of research
121 methodologies, in order to promote their application to predict the potential impact of drainage systems
122 when designing urban water resources planning strategies. This later objective will need to be validated in
123 the field in future researches.

124

125 **2. Materials and Methods**

126 *2.1. Materials used in the laboratory experiments*

127 The material used in the laboratory simulations was obtained from real Type B aggregate of clean igneous
128 Granodiorite characteristics, which is used to refurbish highway FDs in the UK's SRN, and therefore
129 complies with the UK Highways Agency Manual of Contract Documents for Highway Works (MCDH
130 2009) and BS EN 13242 requirements (BSI 2006). The Particle Size Distribution (PSD) of the aggregate is
131 shown in Table 1.

132 Table 1. PSD of the Type B aggregate used in the laboratory simulation and its comparison with the specifications in
 133 the MCDH (2009) and BS EN 13242 (BSI 2006).

BS Sieve Size	% Passing	% Passing
(mm)	(Laboratory)	(Specifications)
80	100	100
63	100	98 – 100
40	93	85 – 99
20	11	0 – 20
10	1	0 – 5

134

135 *2.2. Experimental methodology*

136 The experimental methodology of this research was divided into 3 main areas. Firstly, the experiments
 137 carried out in the laboratory and the simulation methodology are described in detail. Secondly, the
 138 stormwater design management tools used in the research are presented with the specific features utilised
 139 in the investigation. Finally, the statistical analyses that determine the accuracy of the comparison between
 140 the results obtained in laboratory and the results produced by the simulations on the stormwater design tools
 141 are delivered.

142

143 *2.2.1. Laboratory simulations*

144 Special rigs of 21.5 cm x 21.5 cm x 65.0 cm dimensions were tailored made out of plate-glass material for
 145 visual analysis of the infiltration performance of the columns of gravel (see Figure 1). Four of these rigs
 146 were used to obtain enough reliability in the subsequent statistical analyses.

147 The pipe that is usually installed in HFD was deliberately avoided in this study, in order to focus the analysis
 148 on the hydraulic performance of the porous media represented by the standardised Type B aggregate. This
 149 decision enables describing the physical equations underpinning the hydraulic processes in the HFD
 150 accurately. The pipe that serves as an underdrain in HFDs is governed by different processes and it is
 151 usually related to the Colebrook-White formula (Colebrook and White 1937). The Darcy’s law (Whitaker
 152 1986) that acts as a framework for the hydraulic behaviour of porous media with the characteristics of the
 153 materials used in the HFD (see Table 1) and under non-saturated conditions, which are typical of the

154 simulations carried out in this research, were applied under the assumption of steady-state flow through the
155 aggregate. Therefore, the physical performance beneath the whole infiltration process is defined by the
156 Navier-Stokes equations (Novak et al. 2010) due to the high void ratio (commonly over 40%) of the
157 material, which avoids saturation during the experiments (Sansalone et al. 2008; Charbeneau et al. 2010;
158 Rodriguez-Hernandez et al. 2012; Sañudo-Fontaneda et al. 2013; Sañudo-Fontaneda et al. 2014a; Sañudo-
159 Fontaneda et al. 2014c).



160
161 **Fig. 1** Detail of the laboratory HFD model and the rainmaker.

162 The input parameters for this laboratory study were the rainfall intensities, storm durations and type of
163 aggregate utilised, whilst the output parameter was the infiltration rates and accumulated volumes described
164 by the hydrographs of performance. Infiltration rates were measured by collecting the outflow from the
165 experiments by using a sample collector underneath the laboratory rigs in periods of 1 minute during the
166 development of the test. Rainfall intensity was simulated by the use of a tailored made rainmaker. The
167 inflow was controlled at any time through the use of a flowmeter connected to a water intake and the
168 rainmaker. Every storm event was simulated by maintaining the same intensity thorough the whole
169 experiment for each rainfall intensity studied.

170 The hydraulic performance of FD was characterised through the simulation of 9 different storm scenarios
171 obtained from the combination of 3 high rainfall intensities (100, 200, 400 mm/h), with their correspondent
172 runoff flows in a highway, and 3 short-duration storm events (5, 10 and 15 minutes) as required in the

173 design criteria specified in the DMRB-UK (2004). Neither sediments nor pollutants were added to the
 174 laboratory rigs used to replicate the gravel columns embedded in the HFD in order to avoid the disturbance
 175 on the hydraulic performance of the gravel that conforms the HFD. Therefore, just tap water was used in
 176 the experiments.

177 Sañudo-Fontaneda et al. (2016) partially described the relation between the simulation of direct rainfall
 178 over the rigs and their correspondence with the runoff volume reaching the FD from the carriageway for
 179 the very same rainfall intensity. This process of early comparison is required to understand the subsequent
 180 modelling of the 9 scenarios in the stormwater design management tools, because it will influence the
 181 receiving area of the direct rainfall and the receiving area of the runoff produced by it, which are entirely
 182 different. In order to clarify the calculations, the use of the Rational Method for small catchments (Nash
 183 1958), which fits perfectly the description of a transport infrastructure such as a road (Woods-Ballard et al.
 184 2016; DMRB-UK 2004), was selected as the equation to control the transformation from rainfall intensity,
 185 raining down over a certain area, into runoff volume entering the FD (Coupe et al. 2016; Sañudo-Fontaneda
 186 et al. 2016). Under these premises, Table 2 has been prepared to understand the transformation from the
 187 volumes of direct rainfall and the volumes of runoff for a contribution area defined by 2 carriageways of
 188 3.0 m width and a hard-shoulder of 1.8 m width. Since the length of the laboratory-simulated rigs was 0.215
 189 m, this contribution area amounted up to 1.677 m².

190 Table 2. Surface runoff flow for a 100 m length HFD produced by the simulated rainfall events for a contribution area
 191 consisting on 2 carriageways and a hard-shoulder (7.8 m width).

Rainfall intensity directly simulated over the laboratory rigs (mm/h)	Flow simulated over the laboratory models for the rig's surface (0.046 m²) (L/min)	Equivalent rainfall intensity for the flow simulated, having a contribution area defined by the 2 carriageways + hard shoulder (1.677 m²) (mm/h)
100	0.070	2.5
200	0.140	5
400	0.280	10

192

193 The application of the Rational Method (Woods-Ballard et al. 2016; DMRB-UK 2004) considering the flow
194 simulated over the laboratory models as the runoff volume discharged from a contribution area of 1.677m²
195 enabled the direct rainfall simulated over the rigs to be translated into the direct rainfall corresponding to
196 the real length of 2 carriageways and a hard-shoulder, which are a common standard in UK highways.
197 Therefore, the last column in Table 2 provides the values of that rainfall intensity (2.5, 5 and 10 mm/h),
198 which are considered of great interest for road designers as they are representative of common rainfall event
199 in the West Midlands, the area of the UK where the research was conducted. In addition, a rainfall event of
200 10 mm/h and 15 minutes of storm duration corresponds to 11 months of return period in the West Midlands
201 (Alfredo et al. 2010), achieving the year of return period required for the FD to cope with the design rainfall
202 event and runoff volume specified by the DRMB-UK (2004).

203

204 2.2.2. Stormwater Design Management Tools

205 The same rainfall scenarios described in the laboratory experiments were simulated both in the Stormwater
206 Management Model (SWMM) and MicroDrainage®. SWMM is a widely used rainfall-runoff piece of
207 software that simulates diverse phenomena associated with urban hydrology: continuous and discrete storm
208 events, runoff generation, water routing, overflow discharge and reservoir storage (Huber et al. 1988).
209 Furthermore, it enables modelling the impact of different SuDS on water quantity and quality through its
210 LID Control Editor (Rossman 2010). Although HFD are not explicitly included among them, they can be
211 assimilated to infiltration trenches, which are one of the eight types of SuDS available in SWMM.

212 The scaled laboratory conditions were replicated in SWMM by defining a sub-catchment of 0.078 ha (100
213 m length by 7.8 m width), which represented the contributing area flowing to the HFD. Three different
214 uniform storms were designed to simulate the equivalent rainfall intensities listed in Table 2, including a
215 1-minute time step to reproduce the real-time testing used in laboratory. Moreover, the cross-section of the
216 HFD was characterized through a 650 mm thick layer with a porosity of 0.4. The seepage rate was set at 0,
217 since this parameter concerns the infiltration capability of the soil below the HFD. All these parameters
218 were fixed by both the characteristics of the materials and the conditions under which the laboratory tests
219 were conducted. Hence, the only parameters which were variable and, therefore, subject to calibration were
220 those referred to the drain system of the rigs. None of the specifications included in the SWMM “Drain
221 Advisor”, which consider the existence of impermeable bottoms, slotted pipes or fully saturation, replicated

222 the outflow conditions of the tests. Drain systems are characterized in SWMM through two parameters:
 223 flow coefficient and flow exponent. These parameters are performance-based rather than design-based and
 224 its combination determines the height above the bottom of the LID unit storage layer and how its volumetric
 225 flow rate varies with the height of saturated media above it (Rossman 2010). The calibration of simulations
 226 proved that a ratio 1:6 ratio between flow exponent and flow coefficient provided the best fit to the drain
 227 characteristics of the test rigs. In particular, the best fit for the flow exponent was found to be in the range
 228 of 1 and 3, from more to less conservative. The results of the calibration demonstrated that a flow exponent
 229 of 1.75 and a flow coefficient of 10.50 was the best combination to keep a balance between conservatism
 230 and accuracy.

231 The DrawNet suite within MicroDrainage®, which is the UK industry standard drainage modelling tool,
 232 was also used to simulate the HFD (Hubert et al. 2015; Lashford et al. 2014). The software enabled the
 233 design and simulation of both piped and SuDS drainage systems, which included the modelling of a HFD.
 234 The HFD was designed using the equivalent parameters and contributing area as used in SWMM. Each
 235 design storm was subsequently simulated in the software package, based on the rainfall monitored in the
 236 laboratory, and the outputs compared to evaluate the performance of the FD.

237 In a second step, the results were scaled up from 0.215 up to a 100 m length, in order to be ready for
 238 comparison with the results obtained from the management tools, which have the limitation of not providing
 239 results for very small catchments like the one simulated in the laboratory. The flow values obtained at the
 240 discharge point of the FD are shown below in Table 3 and were obtained after applying the Rational Method
 241 for small catchments (Woods-Ballard et al. 2016; DMRB-UK 2004).

242 Table 3. Runoff flow value calculated as the volume of runoff entering the simulated 100 m length FD from the
 243 equivalent contribution area consisting on the 2 carriageways and the hard-shoulder (7.8 m width).

Rainfall intensity raining down the equivalent contribution area scaled up to 100 m length of FD and 2 carriageways + hard shoulder (780 m²) (mm/h)	Surface runoff volume produced by the intensities raining over the equivalent contribution area considered in the first column (L/s)
2.5	0.54

5	1.09
10	2.17

244

245 2.2.3. Statistical analyses

246 Three goodness-of-fit coefficients were considered to validate the accuracy of the comparison between the
247 laboratory simulations and the results obtained from the modelling of the same 9 scenarios using SWMM
248 and MicroDrainage®. This course of action was in line with the recommendations made by Jain and
249 Sudheer (2008), who suggested that the use of a sole goodness-of-fit measure can be misleading. Therefore,
250 the Nash-Sutcliffe (Nash and Sutcliffe 1970) and the R^2 (Hirsch et al. 1993) coefficients and the Root Mean
251 Square Error (RMSE) (Chai and Draxler 2014) were chosen for their reliability in previous researches. In
252 addition, inferential statistical techniques were applied to verify the absence of differences between the
253 hydrographs obtained for both the laboratory and computer models. Thus, parametric (known distribution)
254 or non-parametric (unknown distribution) tests were used depending on whether the hydrographs followed
255 normal distributions or not, according to the Shapiro-Wilk test (Shapiro et al. 1965). A significance level
256 of 0.05 was chosen for statistical testing.

257

258 **3. Results and Discussions**

259 The results of all experiments carried out in the laboratory models and the simulations developed in the
260 stormwater management tools (SWMM and MicroDrainage®) are presented and discussed in this point.
261 The main areas for the interpretation and discussion of these results are the hydrographs of performance
262 obtained from the laboratory simulations and the design tools. Finally, the results from the statistical
263 analyses are described and discussed as a support for the hydrographs of performance.

264

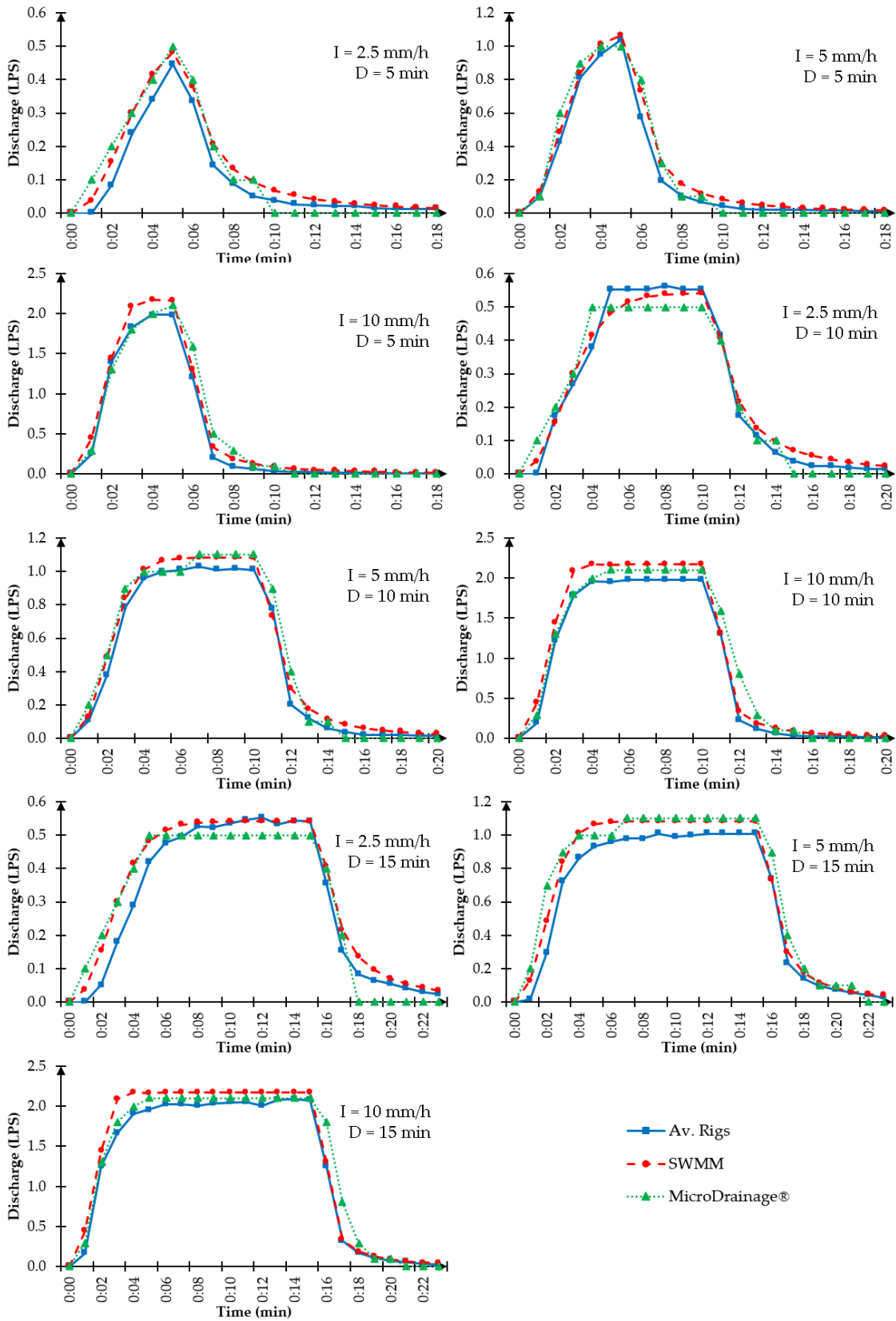
265 *3.1. Hydraulic characterisation of the FD in the laboratory*

266 The characterization of the performance of FD was carried out through the laboratory simulation of the
267 different 9 storm scenarios, so that each scenario is represented by the hydrographs obtained as a result of
268 the outflows measured beneath the laboratory rigs in periods of 1 minute.

269 The average hydrographs obtained from the rigs tested in laboratory (Av. Rigs) were compared with those
270 determined from the simulations of the 9 different storm scenarios with the SWMM and the

271 MicroDrainage® tools as represented in Figure 2, dividing the analysis of the hydrographs into the three
272 different storm event durations (5, 10 and 15 minutes). The mere visual inspection of these plots
273 demonstrated the excellent fit between the hydrographs obtained in laboratory and those determined using
274 stormwater tools. Furthermore, the simulations run with SWMM and MicroDrainage® resulted in more
275 conservative hydrographs generally (slight overestimation of the discharge of HFD), which involves being
276 on the safe side in terms of design.

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277

278

Fig. 2 Hydrographs for a 100 m length HFD extrapolated from the results obtained for the laboratory models

279

280 3.2. Statistical analyses

281 The statistical analyses include the main coefficients that allow to determine the validity of the models
 282 obtained using the SMT through their comparison with the laboratory simulations. For this reason, the
 283 Nash-Sutcliffe and R^2 coefficients and the Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE) were calculated for all the
 284 different scenarios of rainfall as shown in Table 4. Overall, the results revealed that the higher the rainfall
 285 intensity, the better the level of accuracy of the laboratory models in comparison with the simulations
 286 obtained in SWMM and MicroDrainage®.

287 The Nash-Sutcliffe coefficients validated the methodology showing very high values in the region of 0.88
 288 and 0.99 for both SWMM and MicroDrainage® when comparing them with the laboratory simulations.
 289 The R^2 coefficient reached high values as well, being always above 0.97 in all storm scenarios simulated
 290 with both design management tools. Furthermore, the values of RMSE achieved were generally below 10%
 291 of the discharge peaks for both SWMM and MicroDrainage®, which ensured that the differences in the
 292 amount of volume produced between the laboratory and computer hydrographs were minimal.

293 Table 4. Statistical analyses conducted using the Nash-Sutcliffe and R^2 coefficients and the RMSE

Goodness-of-fit measure	Stormwater Management Tool (SMT)	Storm duration (minutes)								
		5			10			15		
		Rainfall Intensity (mm/h)								
		2.5	5	10	2.5	5	10	2.5	5	10
Nash-Sutcliffe Coefficient	SWMM	0.92	0.97	0.98	0.98	0.98	0.97	0.95	0.96	0.97
	MicroDrainage®	0.86	0.95	0.97	0.95	0.97	0.97	0.92	0.91	0.97
R^2 Coefficient	SWMM	0.98	0.99	1.00	0.99	1.00	1.00	0.97	0.99	0.99
	MicroDrainage®	0.94	0.97	0.97	0.96	0.98	0.98	0.92	0.96	0.98
Root Mean Square Error (RMSE)	SWMM	0.04	0.06	0.11	0.03	0.06	0.15	0.05	0.09	0.15
	MicroDrainage®	0.05	0.08	0.13	0.05	0.08	0.17	0.06	0.13	0.17

294
 295 The hydrographs illustrated in Figure 2 were evaluated using statistical techniques, in order to validate the
 296 absence of differences between the laboratory and computer results. Almost all the p-values obtained after
 297 checking normality for the datasets behind the hydrographs were below 0.05, which suggested that the
 298 samples under study had to be analysed using non-parametric tests.

299 Therefore, the Kruskal-Wallis test was applied to check the hypothesis that the three types of hydrographs
 300 (Av. Rigs, SWMM and MicroDrainage®) were not significantly different. The p-values shown in Table 5
 301 confirmed this hypothesis, since they were above the significance level in all cases. Consequently, the

302 Mann-Whitney test was used to prove the similarity between hydrographs derived from the laboratory and
 303 computer simulations, as well as that between the results obtained with SWMM and MicroDrainage®.
 304 Again, the values listed in Table 5 in relation to this test demonstrated that the differences in each pairwise
 305 comparison were not significant (p-values>0.05). In overall terms, these results proved the high accuracy
 306 of computer-based models to replicate the hydraulic performance of HFDs as tested in laboratory.

307 Table 5. Non-parametric comparative analysis of the hydrographs obtained for the laboratory and computer models

<i>Storm scenario</i>		<i>Kruskal-Wallis</i>	<i>Mann-Whitney</i>		
<i>Storm duration (minutes)</i>	<i>Rainfall Intensity (mm/h)</i>	<i>Av. Rigs*SWMM* MicroDrainage®</i>	<i>Av. Rigs* SWMM</i>	<i>Av. Rigs* MicroDrainage®</i>	<i>SWMM* MicroDrainage®</i>
5	2.5	0.300	0.231	0.423	0.204
	5	0.223	0.343	0.204	0.148
	10	0.349	0.226	0.470	0.257
10	2.5	0.663	0.880	0.447	0.440
	5	0.667	0.263	0.870	0.695
	10	0.336	0.162	0.649	0.312
15	2.5	0.327	0.503	0.460	0.129
	5	0.169	0.087	0.153	0.419
	10	0.077	0.057	0.202	0.102

308

309 4. Conclusions

310 The main conclusions reached in this research conducted as an international collaborative effort are as
 311 follows:

- 312 • Laboratory simulations have proven to be an accurate tool to determine the hydraulic performance
 313 of FDs under varying scenarios represented by a varying range of rainfall intensities and storm
 314 durations.
- 315 • The use of stormwater design management tools can be validated through the models of
 316 performance obtained in the laboratory experiments to provide decision-makers with an accurate
 317 and reliable means of estimating the potential impact of FDs on urban drainage.
- 318 • The methodology presented in this article has been validated through the comparison of
 319 laboratory-simulated experiments, stormwater design management tools using statistical analyses,
 320 including the Nash-Sutcliffe and R² coefficients and the Root Mean Square Error (RMSE).

321 • Small-scale laboratory simulation models require to be scaled-up adequately by using the
322 appropriate mathematical equations, in order to be realistic and to be adapted to real scenarios of
323 rainfall and real contribution areas.

324 As a final conclusion to this article, the authors of this research would like to indicate the future research
325 lines that are recommended to achieve full validation of these models in the field.

326 • A full-scale study in the field is recommended to further validate the models obtained in the
327 laboratory simulations and the results achieved using SWMM and MicroDrainage®.

328 • A full-scale study where important parameters such as the flow of water entering the FD and the
329 real contribution area are fully monitored is recommended, in order to not lose the potential for
330 comparison with the models obtained in this research. The heterogeneity of conditions in the field
331 required the isolation of parameters and variables that may disturb the comparisons and, therefore,
332 they may inadequately describe the scenario and would be not acceptable for comparison and/or
333 application of the models obtained in laboratory and through the management tools.

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